*Submission type: Research article*

**A predator in need is a predator indeed: generalist arthropod predators function as pest specialists at the late growth stage of rice**

Gen-Chang Hsu1, Jia-Ang Ou2,3, Min-Hsuan Ni2, Zheng-Hong Lin2 and Chuan-Kai Ho1,2\*

1Department of Life Science, National Taiwan University, Taipei 106, Taiwan

2Institute of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, National Taiwan University, Taipei 106, Taiwan

3Department of Zoology, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, V6T 1Z4, Canada

\* Corresponding author.

ORCiD ID: http://orcid.org/0000-0002-6437-0073

Address: Institute of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, National Taiwan University, Taipei 106, Taiwan

Email: [ckho@ntu.edu.tw](mailto:ckho@ntu.edu.tw)

**Highlights**

* We analyzed arthropod isotope samples in organic/conventional rice farms
* Generalist arthropod predators (GAPs) act as specialists of pest herbivores at late crop stages
* The high pest consumption by GAPs is consistent across years (climates) and farms
* The results lend support to applying GAPs as biocontrol agents in agroecosystems

**Abstract**

Biocontrol, using natural enemies for pest control, has a long history in agriculture. It has received a surge of interest in the recent Anthropocene because of its potential as a valuable tool for sustainable agriculture. To solve a long-standing puzzle in biocontrol—how well the ubiquitous generalist arthropod predators (GAPs) function as biocontrol agents—this study aimed to 1) quantify the diet composition of GAPs at each crop stage using stable isotope analysis, 2) examine the consistency of GAPs in pest consumption over years, and 3) investigate how abiotic and biotic factors affect pest consumption by GAPs. Specifically, we sampled arthropod prey and GAPs in sub-tropical organic and conventional rice farms over main crop stages (tillering, flowering, and ripening) in three consecutive years. Among our field-collected samples, 352 arthropod predator and 828 prey isotope samples were analyzed to infer predator-prey interactions. Our results show the following: a) The proportion of rice pests in GAPs’ diets in both organic and conventional farms increased over the crop season, from 21-47% at the tillering stage to 80-97% at the ripening stage, across the three study years. The high percentage in pest consumption at late crop stages (flowering and ripening) suggests that GAPs can function as specialists of rice pests during the critical period of crop production. Regarding individual predator groups, spiders and ladybeetles exhibited distinct dietary patterns over crop stages. b) The high pest consumption by GAPs at late crop stages was similar across years (with different climatic conditions), suggesting a consistency in GAP feeding habits and biocontrol value. c) The proportion of rice pests in GAPs’ diets varied with farm type and crop stage (e.g., higher in conventional farms and during flowering/ripening stages). By quantifying the diet composition of GAPs over crop stages, farm types, and years, this study reveals that generalist predators have potential to produce a stable, predictable top-down effect on pests under various environmental conditions. As sustainable agriculture has become increasingly important, incorporating the ubiquitous generalist predators into pest management will likely open a promising avenue towards achieving this goal.

*Keywords: biocontrol, trophic interactions, generalist predators, rice paddy, organic and conventional farms, stable isotope analysis*

**1. Introduction**

Using natural arthropod enemies for pest control has a long history in agriculture. The earliest record of biocontrol was documented in the book *Plants of the Southern Regions* (*ca.* 304 A.D.). It described people in Southern China selling ants and their nests (attached to branches) in the markets to control citrus insect pests (Huang and Yang, 1987). Nevertheless, with the advent of modern technologies in the past century, synthetic pesticides have become the main method for controlling pests in agriculture. However, this comes at a cost, such as posing risks to people, reducing biodiversity (e.g., a decline in top predators) and hampering ecosystem functions (e.g., a decline in pollinator service) (Geiger *et al.*, 2010; Kehoe *et al.*, 2017). As agriculture has become the largest land use type worldwide and a major driver for the global biodiversity crisis and environmental degradation in Anthropocene (Campbell *et al.*, 2017), various remedial strategies for environmentally friendly practices (e.g., biocontrol) have been proposed to make agriculture more sustainable (Gomiero *et al.*, 2011). For example, the European Commission has announced its plan to reduce the use of chemical pesticides in European Union agricultural systems by 50% by 2030 (European Commission, 2020). To achieve this ambitious sustainability goal, biocontrol by natural enemies has been considered a key approach and has regained importance in modern agriculture.

Arthropod natural enemies used for pest control can be classified into two major groups based on their prey range: specialist and generalist predators. While specialist predators (e.g., parasitoid wasps) have been widely advocated in agriculture because they target specific pest species and produce less undesirable non-target effects (Stiling and Cornelissen, 2005), generalist predators (e.g., spiders) have been increasingly appreciated for their conspicuous existence and top-down effect on pests (Symondson *et al.*, 2002; Stiling and Cornelissen, 2005; Michalko *et al.*, 2019; Hsu *et al.*, 2021; Gajski *et al.*, 2023). For example, generalist predators were commonly reported in various agro-ecosystems and significantly reduced pest abundance in approximately 75% of cases in 181 field manipulative studies (Symondson *et al.*, 2002). Moreover, a meta-analysis by Stiling and Cornelissen (2005) suggests that generalist predators may exert stronger biocontrol effects on pest populations over time compared to specialists.

While the value of generalist predators has been increasingly appreciated, a few fundamental knowledge gaps need to be filled to underscore their biocontrol potential and the underlying mechanisms in agro-ecosystems. For example, while studies have qualitatively analyzed the diets of generalist predators (e.g., using molecular gut content analysis to identify prey species) (Eitzinger and Traugott, 2011; Ingrao *et al.*, 2017; Albertini *et al.*, 2018), very few have quantified their diet composition over a growth season in the field (knowledge gap 1) (Hsu *et al.*, 2021; Otieno *et al.*, 2023). Quantifying their diet composition will provide critical information to address the concern that generalist predators may switch their diet from pests to alternative prey and thus reduce their pest control effectiveness (Michalko *et al.*, 2019). For instance, if generalist predators still consume a high proportion of pests in their diet with the presence of alternative prey in the field, this result would help end a long debate on whether generalist predators serve well as biocontrol agents (Symondson *et al.*, 2002; Krey *et al.*, 2017; Michalko *et al.*, 2019). Moreover, examining the consistency of generalist predators in pest consumption in the field over years is important to assess the reliability of these predators as biocontrol agents in agriculture, although this information is lacking (knowledge gap 2). Given that temporal dynamics in population density or species composition commonly occur in agro-ecosystems (Settle *et al.*, 1996; Dominik *et al.*, 2018), a consistently high pest consumption by generalist predators over years, if it occurs, will provide strong support for applying these predators in pest management programs.

To better understand the underlying mechanisms for the biocontrol effect of generalist predators, we also need to examine how various abiotic and biotic factors affect the diet composition of generalist predators in agro-ecosystems (knowledge gap 3). First, arthropod community composition (e.g., pest vs. alternative prey density) may vary with crop stages over the growth season and affect predator-prey trophic interactions (Roubinet *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, we should examine how crop stage affects the pest consumption by generalist predators to understand whether the role of these predators as biocontrol agents varies within a growth season. Second, we should examine whether farming practices (e.g., organic and conventional) influence the diet composition of predators (e.g., pest consumption) (Birkhofer *et al.*, 2011). This will demonstrate whether generalist predators provide varying biocontrol values in specific farm types. For examples, compared to conventional farming, organic farming may promote arthropod diversity (Bengtsson *et al.*, 2005), potentially lowering the pest consumption by generalist predators if predators shift their diet towards alternative prey. In contrast, the application of synthetic chemicals in conventional farms may promote pest abundance (Hardin *et al.*, 1995; Settle *et al.*, 1996; Birkhofer *et al.*, 2008a; Guedes *et al.*, 2016), potentially leading to higher pest consumption by predators. Third, we should investigate the relationship between the relative prey abundance and the diet composition of their predators. This will clarify whether pest abundance or predator preference mainly explains the pest consumption by predators (Wise *et al.*, 2006; Kuusk and Ekbom, 2012; Roubinet *et al.*, 2017; Eitzinger *et al.*, 2019). Lastly, we should examine how surrounding vegetation (e.g., forest cover) affects the diet composition of generalist predators. While surrounding vegetation and landscape composition reportedly affected arthropod diversity and predator-prey interactions in agro-ecosystems (Altieri and Letourneau, 1982; Altieri, 1999; Barbosa and Castellanos, 2005; Diehl *et al.*, 2013; Lichtenberg *et al.*, 2017), its effect on predators’ diet composition is unclear (but see Otieno *et al.*, 2023). Understanding this will provide insights for managing the agricultural landscape and promoting biocontrol services by generalist predators.

To address these three knowledge gaps, this study aimed to 1) quantify the diet composition of generalist arthropod predators (GAPs), 2) examine the consistency of GAPs in pest consumption over years, and 3) investigate how various abiotic and biotic factors may affect the diet composition of GAPs. Filling these gaps will provide useful insights for applying generalist predators in pest programs. Specifically, this study sampled arthropod prey and two main groups of GAPs (ladybeetles and spiders) in sub-tropical organic and conventional rice farms over the rice growth season (tillering, flowering, and ripening stages) in central Taiwan from 2017 to 2019, and quantified the diet composition of GAPs at each rice stage using carbon and nitrogen stable isotopes. We expected that the patterns of pest consumption by GAPs may differ between organic and conventional farms, vary throughout the crop season as the relative abundances of different prey sources changed, be affected by the surrounding landscape composition (percent forest cover), and vary across years as the climatic conditions fluctuated. Stable isotope analysis has been widely applied in ecology to infer predator-prey trophic interactions and to estimate the proportional contribution of different prey sources to predators’ diets in various ecosystems, especially in agricultural settings (Post, 2002; Boecklen *et al.*, 2011; Layman *et al.*, 2012). This quantification method reflects accumulated prey consumption in predators’ diets, which may not be revealed by other “snap-shot” techniques (e.g., field observations and molecular gut content analysis) (Newton, 2016).

**2. Materials and Methods**

*2.1. Study system and sample collection*

We collected terrestrial arthropods in paired organic and conventional rice farms in subtropical Taiwan (120.656-120.721 °E; 24.364-24.489 °N) from 2017 to 2019 (three farm pairs in 2017 and seven farm pairs in 2018 and 2019). The sample sites where each farm pair was located were at least 1 km apart from each other to minimize the potential movements of arthropods across farms. The study farms were 0.2 hectares on average and irrigated with surface water. The organic farms were managed with organic fertilizers (manure; 2-3 applications/crop season) and natural pesticides (tea saponins; 1 application/crop season). The conventional farms were managed with synthetic nitrogen fertilizers (2-3 applications/crop season) and organophosphate pesticides (1 application/crop season). At each major rice crop stage (seedling, tillering, flowering, and ripening stage) during the growing season (April - July) in each study year, we collected arthropod samples by walking along two randomly selected farm ridges and sweep-netting (36 cm in diameter with a mesh size of 0.2 × 0.2 mm) the crop canopy 30 times for each ridge. This allowed us to sample arthropod species inhabiting rice farms (e.g., rice herbivores) as well as those dispersing into the farms from nearby vegetation (e.g., tourist herbivores; see *2.3. Arthropod trophic guild assignment* for more details). Samples were sealed in bags without chemical preservatives, iced, and transferred to refrigerator (−20ºC) in the laboratory. We identified and counted arthropods under a dissecting scope to the lowest possible taxonomic level. Main orders, families, and genera have been documented in Hsu et al. (Hsu *et al.*, 2021).

*2.2. Stable isotope analysis of arthropod samples*

After identification, arthropod samples were prepared for stable isotope analysis. First, samples were oven dried (50ºC) for one week, ground, and weighed into individual tin foil capsules (5 × 9 mm). If necessary, several conspecifics would be pooled into a capsule to meet the minimum weight required for stable isotope analysis (i.e., 2 mg in this study). Stable isotope analysis (352 arthropod predator and 828 prey isotope samples) was conducted at the UC Davis Stable Isotope Facility using a PDZ Europa ANCA-GSL elemental analyzer interfaced to a PDZ Europa 20-20 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Sercon Ltd., Cheshire, UK). The standards for carbon and nitrogen stable isotope ratios were Vienna PeeDee Beleminte and atmospheric N2, respectively. The results of our samples were expressed in per mil (‰) relative to the international standards (δ13C and δ15N).

*2.3. Arthropod trophic guild assignment*

In this study, we classified arthropod samples into four trophic guilds (one predator and three prey guilds): 1) “Predators” consisted of spiders and ladybeetles, which are the two primary GAPs in rice farms. 2) “Rice herbivores” consisted of major rice pests, including planthoppers, leafhoppers, and stink bugs (Ane and Hussain, 2016). 3) “Tourist herbivores” consisted of herbivorous species without direct trophic association with rice plants, including some grasshoppers and leaf beetles. 4) “Detritivores” consisted of arthropods that feed on decaying organic material or plankton, including various midge and fly species. The classification of prey guilds was based on a combination of dietary information in the literature and k-means clustering of stable isotope signatures of arthropod samples, which ensured that the isotopic separation among the three prey sources were maximized for stable isotope mixing model estimation (see Appendix A: Fig. S1 for a stable isotope biplot of rice plant and the three prey sources). The arthropod families/genera in each trophic guild are detailed in Appendix A: Table S1. This study focused on the trophic interactions between generalist predators and their prey sources and therefore did not consider less abundant trophic guilds (e.g., parasitoids) in subsequent analyses.

*2.4. Data analyses*

To quantify the diet composition of predators, we constructed Bayesian stable isotope mixing models using the R MixSIAR package (Stock and Semmens, 2016) to estimate the proportions of different prey sources (i.e., the three prey guilds including rice herbivores, tourist herbivores, and detritivores) in predators’ diet. In the mixing models, individual farm-year combination and crop stage were included as fixed effects for predator isotope data; isotope data for the three prey guilds were pooled respectively to generate fixed source values because of their high mobility across farms (Mazzi and Dorn, 2012; Sun *et al.*, 2015). Isotope data at the seedling stage for the three study years were omitted from the analysis due to insufficient sample sizes for model estimation. To improve our model estimates, carbon and nitrogen concentration dependencies as well as the residual/process errors were incorporated (Phillips and Koch, 2002; Stock and Semmens, 2016). Trophic discrimination factors (TDFs) were estimated from the diet-dependent discrimination equation proposed by Caut *et al.* (2009). We ran three Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chains, each with 50,000 iterations and a burn-in number of 25,000, along with a non-informative Dirichlet prior. Chain convergence was assessed via Gelman-Rubin and Geweke diagnostics. Bayesian posterior median estimates of diet composition (for each farm-year-stage combination) were extracted for further analyses.

To examine how local abiotic and biotic factors may affect the pest consumption by GAPs, we fit generalized linear models (GLM) with a beta distribution and a logit link function using the R betareg package (Zeileis *et al.*, 2016), with year, farm type, crop stage, percent forest cover, and the relative abundance of rice herbivores as fixed effects and the proportion of rice herbivores consumed in predators’ diet as the response (posterior medians from the Bayesian stable isotope mixing models). Model parameters were estimated using maximum likelihood, and their significance was analyzed via likelihood ratio test using the “Anova” function in the R car package (Fox and Weisberg, 2018). Tukey’s post-hoc tests were performed for the significant factors using the “cld” function in the R emmeans package (Lenth and Lenth, 2018). The percent forest cover around each study farm was estimated from Google Earth images by manually delimiting the forested areas within a 1-km radius circular buffer surrounding the farm and computing the fraction of these areas in the buffer zone. Because spiders and ladybeetles exhibited distinct foraging behavior (e.g., sit-and-wait vs. active hunting), we also performed all the aforementioned analyses separately for each of the two predator groups. All analyses were conducted in R version 4.0.3 (R Core Team, 2021).

**3. Results**

*3.1. Diet composition of predators in rice farms*

Across organic and conventional farms during 2017-2019, the proportion of rice herbivores in predators’ diet increased over the course of the crop season from 21-47% at the tillering stage to 80-97% at the ripening stage; the proportion of detritivores in predators’ diet decreased from 35-61% at the tillering stage to < 1% at the ripening stage; the proportion of tourist herbivores in predators’ diet also decreased from 13-20% at the tillering stage to 3-18% at the ripening stage (Fig. 1a; Appendix A: Table S2).

Regarding individual predator groups, spiders and ladybeetles showed a marked difference in their diet composition over crop stages during 2017-2019. Across organic and conventional farms, spiders consumed a higher proportion of detritivores (31-55%) in their diet in the beginning of crop season (tillering stage) and substantially increased the consumption on rice herbivores to 78-95% in late crop season (ripening stage) (Fig. 1b; Appendix A: Table S2). In contrast, ladybeetles in both organic and conventional farms consumed a low proportion of detritivores (≤ 8%) and a steadily high proportion of rice herbivores (≥ 80%) in their diet throughout the crop season (Fig. 1c; Appendix A: Table S2). Tourist herbivores generally did not constitute an important prey source and contributed less than 33% to the diet of spiders and ladybeetles (Fig. 1b, 1c; Appendix A: Table S2).

*3.2. Patterns of rice herbivore consumption by predators*

We further analyzed rice herbivore consumption by GAPs since these herbivores are the main pests of concern. The patterns of rice herbivore consumption by both predators in organic and conventional rice farms were generally similar across the three study years, suggesting consistency in GAPs’ feeding habits (Fig. 2). The consistency in herbivore consumption over years was also revealed by our beta regression model, which indicated that the proportion of rice herbivores consumed in all predators’ diet did not vary across years (*χ*2 = 2.02, *P* = 0.36; Table 1).

Interestingly, spiders and ladybeetles exhibited distinct within-season patterns of rice herbivore consumption. For spiders in organic and conventional farms, the proportion of rice herbivores in their diet increased toward later crop season, ranging from 17-48% (tillering) to 78-95% (ripening) (Fig. 2b; Appendix A: Table S2), whereas for ladybeetles in organic and conventional farms, the proportion of rice herbivores in their diet remained relatively stable throughout the season, ranging from 80-93% (tilling) to 97-98% (ripening) (Fig. 2c; Appendix A: Table S2).

*3.3. Factors associated with rice herbivore consumption by predators*

The proportion of rice herbivores in GAPs’ diet differed between organic and conventional farms for both predators (*χ*2 = 20.18, *P* < 0.001) and spiders (*χ*2 = 11.58, *P* < 0.001) but not ladybeetles (*χ*2 = 1.35, *P* = 0.25; Table 1). Specifically, both predators consumed a higher proportion of rice herbivores in their diet in conventional farms compared to organic farms (Tukey’s post-hoc test, *P* < 0.05; Table 2). The proportion of rice herbivores in GAPs’ diet also differed among crop stages (both predators: *χ*2 = 225.48, *P* < 0.001; spiders: *χ*2 = 95.93, *P* < 0.001; ladybeetles: *χ*2 = 90.94, *P* < 0.001; Table 1). Specifically, GAPs consumed higher proportions of rice herbivores in their diet at the ripening stage compared to the tillering and/or flowering stage (Tukey’s post-hoc test, *P* < 0.05; Table 3). The proportion of rice herbivores consumed in GAPs’ diet was not associated with the percent forest cover within a 1-km radius buffer surrounding the study farms (both predators: *χ*2 = 0.61, *P* = 0.43; spiders: *χ*2 = 0.95, *P* = 0.33; ladybeetles: *χ*2 = 0.76, *P* = 0.38; Table 1), nor was it associated with the relative abundance of rice herbivores in the field (both predators: *χ*2 = 0.08, *P* = 0.77; spiders: *χ*2 = 0.92, *P* = 0.34; ladybeetles: *χ*2 = 1.15, *P* = 0.28; Table 1).

**4. Discussion**

Because the worldwide demand for environmentally friendly practices in agriculture has increased, we investigated the potential of GAPs (ubiquitous in nature) as biocontrol agents in agro-ecosystems. Specifically, we used stable isotopes to quantify the diet composition of GAPs in organic and conventional rice farms in the frist crop season in three consecutive years. Our main results include the following: 1) Across the three study years, the rice herbivore consumption by GAPs increased in both organic and conventional farms over the crop season, from 20-47% at the tillering stage to 80-97% at the ripening stage (Fig. 1a). The high percentage at the ripening stage indicates that GAPs could function as specialists of rice pests during critical rice growth (late crop) stages. Notably, rice herbivore consumption by spiders increased gradually toward the later crop season (Fig. 2b), whereas the consumption by ladybeetles remained stable throughout the season (Fig. 2c). 2) Our results revealed similar among-year patterns in rice herbivore consumption by GAPs in organic and conventional rice farms, suggesting a consistency in GAPs’ feeding habits and biocontrol value (Fig. 2, Table 1). 3) The proportion of rice herbivores in GAPs’ diets varied with farm type and crop stage (e.g., higher in conventional farms and during flowering/ripening stages). However, contrary to results from previous studies, pest consumption by GAPs was not associated with surrounding landscape (e.g., percent forest cover) or the relative abundance of rice herbivores in the field (Table 1). We discuss in the following sections: 1) GAPs function as rice pest specialists at late crop stages, 2) GAPs exhibit consistent pest consumption patterns over years, 3) factors associated with pest consumption by GAPs, and 4) the potential caveats of this study. We finish by highlighting the implications of our results for agricultural management.

*4.1. Generalist predators function as rice pest specialists at late crop stages*

While biocontrol, a farming practice with a long history, offers a promising solution for sustainable agriculture, the use of GAPs as biocontrol agents remains a concern because GAPs may switch diets between pests and alternative prey (Albajes and Alomar, 1999; Prasad and Snyder, 2006; Roubinet *et al.*, 2018). This study addressed this concern and revealed a consistency in high pest consumption by GAPs at late crop stages over years. The results provide not only strong support for using GAPs in sustainable pest management, but also a novel aspect in biocontrol—generalist predators may function as guild-level specialist predators of rice pests during the late crop season. Specifically, across the three study years, GAPs in both organic and conventional farms consumed an increasing proportion of rice herbivores over the crop season, reaching 80-97% in predators’ diet at the ripening stage, whereas the proportions of alternative prey (detritivores and tourist herbivores) in their diet gradually decreased below 18% at the ripening stage (Fig. 1, Appendix A: Table S2). The increase in rice herbivore consumption over time suggests that the biocontrol potential of predators increases toward late crop stages and peaks at the critical stage of crop production. This could be because of a higher herbivore (pest) density at late crop stages, suggested by a correlation between rice herbivore consumption and crop stage (see *4.3. Factors associated with pest consumption by predators*). On the other hand, intraguild predation, though not examined in our study, may potentially limit the effectiveness of pest suppression by predators (see *Potential caveats of this study* for more details).

While GAPs consumed a high proportion of pests at late crop stages, the two predator groups in our study system, spiders and ladybeetles (Table S1), exhibited distinct dietary patterns over the crop season (Fig. 1, Fig. 2). Specifically, pest consumption by spiders increased substantially, but pest consumption by ladybeetles remained stable over the season (Fig. 2b vs. 2c). This may be because different foraging modes—sit-and-wait (spiders) or actively hunting (ladybeetles)—can lead to different prey capture and thus diet composition (Nyffeler, 1999; Klecka and Boukal, 2013). For example, long-jawed orb-weavers (*Tetragnatha*), the most abundant genus in our spider samples, are sit-and-wait predators. The diet composition of these predators generally reflects prey availability (Nyffeler, 1999). In fact, spiders’ diet composition appeared to correlate with prey abundance in this study (Fig. 1b, Fig. 3), although crop stage, rather than pest relative abundance, better predicted their pest consumption (see *4.3. Factors associated with pest consumption by predators*). In contrast, ladybeetles are actively hunting predators and may preferentially feed on rice herbivores, resulting in stable pest consumption over time (Fig. 1c, Fig. 2c, Fig. 3). Because predator foraging modes shape predator-prey-plant interactions (Schmitz, 2008), we encourage future studies to examine different assemblages of sit-and-wait vs. actively hunting predators in field conditions to reveal the most efficient biocontrol practice over the entire crop season.

*4.2. Generalists exhibit consistent pest consumption patterns over years*

Ideal biocontrol agents provide a consistent, predictable effect on pests under various environmental conditions. Accordingly, GAPs in this study showed consistent pest consumption across years (Fig. 2), despite various abiotic and biotic environmental conditions. Specifically, regarding the abiotic factors, the daily mean temperature, particularly from April to June, varied substantially among years (Appendix A: Fig. S2). The daily precipitation also fluctuated over the three study years, with multiple high precipitation events in 2017, overall low precipitation in 2018, and relatively uniform precipitation in 2019 (Appendix A: Fig. S3). Regarding the biotic factors, the composition of rice herbivores at the flowering and ripening stages differed substantially among the three years, in particular the two most dominant groups: leafhoppers (Cicadellidae/*Nephotettix*) and planthoppers (Delphacidae/*Nilaparvata*) (Appendix A: Table S3). Although both abiotic and biotic factors varied substantially over the years of our study, pest consumption by GAPs generally remained stable, suggesting that GAPs can be a predictable, valuable tool for pest control in sustainable agriculture (but see Eitzinger *et al.*, 2021).

*4.3. Factors associated with pest consumption by predators*

The proportion of rice pests in GAPs’ diets differed between farm types and among crop stages but was not associated with the percent forest cover surrounding the farms or the relative abundance of rice herbivores in the field (Table 1). Overall, GAPs in conventional farms consumed a higher proportion of rice pests in their diet compared to those in organic farms (Table 2). There are two explanations for this: 1) Organic farming may promote arthropod diversity and therefore distract predators from feeding on target pests (Bengtsson *et al.*, 2005; Birkhofer *et al.*, 2008b; Lichtenberg *et al.*, 2017). 2) Pest densities may be higher in conventional farms (Porcel *et al.*, 2018), leading to higher predator-prey encounter rates and thus pest consumption by GAPs. Regardless of the potential mechanisms, our results highlight the important but overlooked biocontrol value of GAPs in conventional farming systems.

Besides farming practices, pest consumption also varied over the crop stages. Overall, pest consumption by GAPs increased from early (tillering) to late (ripening) stages (Fig. 2, Table 3), consistent with previous studies where predators consumed more pests in the late crop season (Roubinet *et al.*, 2017; Hsu *et al.*, 2021). The underlying mechanisms in our study may be summarized as follows: low pest density at the early crop stage led to low pest consumption by GAPs; however, pest populations increased with rice development and eventually predominated, leading to high pest consumption by GAPs at the flowering and ripening stages (Fig. 2 and 3). These findings indicate a higher biocontrol value of predators during the middle and late crop seasons, when the crop production is most vulnerable to pest damage. Therefore, farming practitioners may want to avoid practices that harm predators (e.g., chemical applications) during this period to maintain healthy predator populations and associated ecosystem services.

While the structure and composition of surrounding landscapes critically affect predator abundance and diversity (Altieri and Letourneau, 1982; Altieri, 1999; Diehl *et al.*, 2013; Lichtenberg *et al.*, 2017), their effects on the diet composition of predators remain unclear.

Complex surrounding vegetation has been suggested to promote predator abundance and diversity (Langellotto and Denno, 2004; Diehl *et al.*, 2013), and landscape composition can influence pest control by predators (Rusch *et al.*, 2016; but see (Karp *et al.*, 2018). However, we found no effects of percent forest cover around the study farms on the diet composition of predators in our study (Table 1). This might be because the prey species in our study system were mostly associated with rice plants but not the surrounding vegetation, consistent with a meta-analysis where habitat complexity had no effect on crop herbivore densities (Langellotto and Denno, 2004). Nevertheless, increasing vegetation complexity in the surrounding landscapes remains an important topic because it could benefit pest control by enhancing predator density and diversity.

Notably, although the diet composition of generalist predators correlated with prey availability in the field (Wise *et al.*, 2006; Hsu *et al.*, 2021), our beta regression models suggest no such correlation between rice herbivores and GAPs (Table 1). An explanation is that the relative abundance of rice herbivores was highly correlated with crop stage, a significant factor likely associated with various covariates (e.g., rice plant height) and explaining most variations in pest consumption by GAPs (Fig. 3, Table 1). We encourage further experiments, both observational and manipulative, to clarify the link between prey availability and generalist predators’ diet composition in the field.

*4.4. Potential caveats of this study*

Our study demonstrates high pest consumption by GAPs in rice fields over three years and examines the factors influencing GAPs’ diet composition. While our study provides evidence for GAPs’ biocontrol potential, some caveats may exist. First, high pest consumption in GAPs’ diets does not necessarily imply a strong suppression of pest populations in the field, since pest population dynamics depend not only on the per capita effect of predators but also predator density and diversity (Letourneau *et al.*, 2009; Rusch *et al.*, 2016). To unveil the connection between per capita pest consumption and overall pest dynamics, future work may require complementing stable isotope analysis with field observations of predator and pest population dynamics. Additionally, this study did not include an assessment of crop damage and rice production, and incorporating crop yield data would be necessary to evaluate the overall pest control effectiveness by predators. Second, while intraguild predation potentially influences the pest control by GAPs (Straub *et al.*, 2008; Michalko *et al.*, 2019), it was not accounted for in our diet composition analysis due to the limitation of stable isotope mixing models (Hsu *et al.*, 2021). However, this may not be a major concern in our study because rice plants grow as dense clumps and form a complex structure that could substantially relax intraguild predation pressure (Finke and Denno, 2006; Janssen *et al.*, 2007). Regardless, we caution that our diet estimates of predators (without predator-predator interference) might not apply to systems where intraguild predation prevails.

**5. Conclusions**

While biocontrol has been recognized as a valuable tool for sustainable agriculture, whether generalist predators can serve as effective biocontrol agents in pest management remains unclear. Our study helps solve this long-standing puzzle by using stable isotope analysis to quantify the diet composition of GAPs and identifying the underlying mechanisms for enemy-pest interactions in rice farms over three consecutive years. The results show a high proportion of rice pests in GAPs’ diets in both organic and conventional farms (e.g., 80-97% at the ripening stage), suggesting that these generalist predators function as guild-level “specialist predators” at late crop stages (when rice plants are fruiting and pests are abundant). The high pest consumption remained consistent across years regardless of climatic conditions, demonstrating the potential that generalist predators may produce a stable, predictable top-down effect on pests. Overall, our study lends support to applying generalist predators as biocontrol agents in both organic and conventional farms. As sustainable agriculture has become more important than ever in human history, incorporating the ubiquitous generalist predators into pest management, such as maintaining healthy populations of these predators, will likely open a promising avenue towards this goal.

**Funding**

This work was supported by the Council of Agriculture, Executive Yuan, Taiwan (106AS-4.2.5-ST-a1, 107AS-4.2.3-ST-a1, 108AS-4.2.2-ST-a1, 109AS-4.2.2-ST-a1) and the National Science and Technology Council (108-2621-B-002-003-MY3, 111-2621-B-002-003-MY3).

**Declaration of competing interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

**Data availability**

Data will be made available on request.

**Acknowledgements**

We thank Steven C. Pennings for constructive comments, and Yu-Pin Lin, Chih-Wei Tsai, Chi-Lun Huang, Su-Chen Chang, Hung-Ju Chen, C.-Y. Ho, F.-J. Sha, Y.-C. Chung, K.-C. Ho, and H.-C. Ho for logistic supports. We appreciate the Miaoli District Agricultural Research and Extension Station for field assistance.

**Author contributions**

All authors conducted the experiments; G.-C. Hsu and C.-K. Ho designed and wrote the manuscript; G.-C. Hsu and J.-A. Ou performed the statistical analyses.

**Appendix A. Supporting information**

Supplementary information associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:xxx.

Reference

Albajes, R., Alomar, Ò., 1999. Current and potential use of polyphagous predators. Integrated pest and disease management in greenhouse crops. Springer, pp. 265-275.

Albertini, A., Marchi, S., Ratti, C., Burgio, G., Petacchi, R., Magagnoli, S., 2018. Bactrocera oleae pupae predation by Ocypus olens detected by molecular gut content analysis. BioControl 63, 227-239.

Altieri, M.A., 1999. The ecological role of biodiversity in agroecosystems. Invertebrate biodiversity as bioindicators of sustainable landscapes. Elsevier, pp. 19-31.

Altieri, M.A., Letourneau, D.K., 1982. Vegetation management and biological control in agroecosystems. Crop protection 1, 405-430.

Ane, N.U., Hussain, M., 2016. Diversity of insect pests in major rice growing areas of the world. Journal of Entomology and Zoology Studies 4, 36-41.

Barbosa, P., Castellanos, I., 2005. Ecology of predator-prey interactions. Oxford University Press.

Bengtsson, J., Ahnström, J., WEIBULL, A.C., 2005. The effects of organic agriculture on biodiversity and abundance: a meta‐analysis. Journal of applied ecology 42, 261-269.

Birkhofer, K., Bezemer, T.M., Bloem, J., Bonkowski, M., Christensen, S., Dubois, D., Ekelund, F., Fließbach, A., Gunst, L., Hedlund, K., 2008a. Long-term organic farming fosters below and aboveground biota: Implications for soil quality, biological control and productivity. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 40, 2297-2308.

Birkhofer, K., Fließbach, A., Wise, D.H., Scheu, S., 2011. Arthropod food webs in organic and conventional wheat farming systems of an agricultural long‐term experiment: a stable isotope approach. Agricultural and Forest Entomology 13, 197-204.

Birkhofer, K., Wise, D.H., Scheu, S., 2008b. Subsidy from the detrital food web, but not microhabitat complexity, affects the role of generalist predators in an aboveground herbivore food web. Oikos 117, 494-500.

Boecklen, W.J., Yarnes, C.T., Cook, B.A., James, A.C., 2011. On the use of stable isotopes in trophic ecology. Annual review of ecology, evolution, and systematics 42, 411-440.

Campbell, B.M., Beare, D.J., Bennett, E.M., Hall-Spencer, J.M., Ingram, J.S., Jaramillo, F., Ortiz, R., Ramankutty, N., Sayer, J.A., Shindell, D., 2017. Agriculture production as a major driver of the Earth system exceeding planetary boundaries. Ecology and Society 22.

Caut, S., Angulo, E., Courchamp, F., 2009. Variation in discrimination factors (Δ15N and Δ13C): the effect of diet isotopic values and applications for diet reconstruction. Journal of Applied Ecology 46, 443-453.

Diehl, E., Mader, V.L., Wolters, V., Birkhofer, K., 2013. Management intensity and vegetation complexity affect web-building spiders and their prey. Oecologia 173, 579-589.

Dominik, C., Seppelt, R., Horgan, F.G., Settele, J., Václavík, T., 2018. Landscape composition, configuration, and trophic interactions shape arthropod communities in rice agroecosystems. Journal of applied ecology 55, 2461-2472.

Eitzinger, B., Abrego, N., Gravel, D., Huotari, T., Vesterinen, E.J., Roslin, T., 2019. Assessing changes in arthropod predator–prey interactions through DNA‐based gut content analysis—variable environment, stable diet. Molecular Ecology 28, 266-280.

Eitzinger, B., Roslin, T., Vesterinen, E.J., Robinson, S.I., O'Gorman, E.J., 2021. Temperature affects both the Grinnellian and Eltonian dimensions of ecological niches–A tale of two Arctic wolf spiders. Basic and Applied Ecology 50, 132-143.

Eitzinger, B., Traugott, M., 2011. Which prey sustains cold‐adapted invertebrate generalist predators in arable land? Examining prey choices by molecular gut‐content analysis. Journal of Applied Ecology 48, 591-599.

European Commission, 2020. Communication from the commission to the European parliament, the council, the European economic and social committee and the committee of the regions: a farm to fork strategy for a fair, healthy and environmentally-friendly food system COM/2020/381 final.

Finke, D.L., Denno, R.F., 2006. Spatial refuge from intraguild predation: implications for prey suppression and trophic cascades. Oecologia 149, 265-275.

Fox, J., Weisberg, S., 2018. An R companion to applied regression. Sage publications.

Gajski, D., Mifková, T., Košulič, O., Michálek, O., Serbina, L.Š., Michalko, R., Pekár, S., 2023. Brace yourselves, winter is coming: the winter activity, natural diet, and prey preference of winter-active spiders on pear trees. J Pest Sci 1-14.

Geiger, F., Bengtsson, J., Berendse, F., Weisser, W.W., Emmerson, M., Morales, M.B., Ceryngier, P., Liira, J., Tscharntke, T., Winqvist, C., 2010. Persistent negative effects of pesticides on biodiversity and biological control potential on European farmland. Basic and Applied Ecology 11, 97-105.

Gomiero, T., Pimentel, D., Paoletti, M.G., 2011. Is there a need for a more sustainable agriculture? Critical reviews in plant sciences 30, 6-23.

Guedes, R., Smagghe, G., Stark, J., Desneux, N., 2016. Pesticide-induced stress in arthropod pests for optimized integrated pest management programs. Annual review of entomology 61, 43-62.

Hardin, M.R., Benrey, B., Coll, M., Lamp, W.O., Roderick, G.K., Barbosa, P., 1995. Arthropod pest resurgence: an overview of potential mechanisms. Crop Protection 14, 3-18.

Hsu, G.-C., Ou, J.-A., Ho, C.-K., 2021. Pest consumption by generalist arthropod predators increases with crop stage in both organic and conventional farms. Ecosphere 12, e03625.

Huang, H.T., Yang, P., 1987. The ancient cultured citrus ant. Bioscience 37, 665-671.

Ingrao, A.J., Schmidt, J., Jubenville, J., Grode, A., Komondy, L., VanderZee, D., Szendrei, Z., 2017. Biocontrol on the edge: Field margin habitats in asparagus fields influence natural enemy-pest interactions. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment 243, 47-54.

Janssen, A., Sabelis, M.W., Magalhães, S., Montserrat, M., Van der Hammen, T., 2007. Habitat structure affects intraguild predation. Ecology 88, 2713-2719.

Karp, D.S., Chaplin-Kramer, R., Meehan, T.D., Martin, E.A., DeClerck, F., Grab, H., Gratton, C., Hunt, L., Larsen, A.E., Martínez-Salinas, A., 2018. Crop pests and predators exhibit inconsistent responses to surrounding landscape composition. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 115, E7863-E7870.

Kehoe, L., Romero-Muñoz, A., Polaina, E., Estes, L., Kreft, H., Kuemmerle, T., 2017. Biodiversity at risk under future cropland expansion and intensification. Nature Ecology & Evolution 1, 1129-1135.

Klecka, J., Boukal, D.S., 2013. Foraging and vulnerability traits modify predator–prey body mass allometry: freshwater macroinvertebrates as a case study. Journal of Animal Ecology 82, 1031-1041.

Krey, K.L., Blubaugh, C.K., Chapman, E.G., Lynch, C.A., Snyder, G.B., Jensen, A.S., Fu, Z., Prischmann-Voldseth, D.A., Harwood, J.D., Snyder, W.E., 2017. Generalist predators consume spider mites despite the presence of alternative prey. Biological Control 115, 157-164.

Kuusk, A.-K., Ekbom, B., 2012. Feeding habits of lycosid spiders in field habitats. Journal of Pest Science 85, 253-260.

Langellotto, G.A., Denno, R.F., 2004. Responses of invertebrate natural enemies to complex-structured habitats: a meta-analytical synthesis. Oecologia 139, 1-10.

Layman, C.A., Araujo, M.S., Boucek, R., Hammerschlag‐Peyer, C.M., Harrison, E., Jud, Z.R., Matich, P., Rosenblatt, A.E., Vaudo, J.J., Yeager, L.A., 2012. Applying stable isotopes to examine food‐web structure: an overview of analytical tools. Biological Reviews 87, 545-562.

Lenth, R., Lenth, M.R., 2018. Package ‘lsmeans’. The American Statistician 34, 216-221.

Letourneau, D.K., Jedlicka, J.A., Bothwell, S.G., Moreno, C.R., 2009. Effects of natural enemy biodiversity on the suppression of arthropod herbivores in terrestrial ecosystems. Annu Rev Ecol Evol S 40, 573-592.

Lichtenberg, E.M., Kennedy, C.M., Kremen, C., Batary, P., Berendse, F., Bommarco, R., Bosque‐Pérez, N.A., Carvalheiro, L.G., Snyder, W.E., Williams, N.M., 2017. A global synthesis of the effects of diversified farming systems on arthropod diversity within fields and across agricultural landscapes. Global change biology 23, 4946-4957.

Mazzi, D., Dorn, S., 2012. Movement of insect pests in agricultural landscapes. Annals of Applied Biology 160, 97-113.

Michalko, R., Pekár, S., Entling, M.H., 2019. An updated perspective on spiders as generalist predators in biological control. Oecologia 189, 21-36.

Newton, J., 2016. Stable isotopes as tools in ecological research. eLS, 1-8.

Nyffeler, M., 1999. Prey selection of spiders in the field. Journal of Arachnology, 317-324.

Otieno, N.E., Butler, M., Pryke, J.S., 2023. Fallow fields and hedgerows mediate enhanced arthropod predation and reduced herbivory on small scale intercropped maize farms–δ13C and δ15N stable isotope evidence. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment 349, 108448.

Phillips, D.L., Koch, P.L., 2002. Incorporating concentration dependence in stable isotope mixing models. Oecologia 130, 114-125.

Porcel, M., Andersson, G.K., Pålsson, J., Tasin, M., 2018. Organic management in apple orchards: higher impacts on biological control than on pollination. Journal of Applied Ecology 55, 2779-2789.

Post, D.M., 2002. Using stable isotopes to estimate trophic position: models, methods, and assumptions. Ecology 83, 703-718.

Prasad, R., Snyder, W., 2006. Polyphagy complicates conservation biological control that targets generalist predators. Journal of Applied Ecology 43, 343-352.

R Core Team, 2021. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.

Roubinet, E., Birkhofer, K., Malsher, G., Staudacher, K., Ekbom, B., Traugott, M., Jonsson, M., 2017. Diet of generalist predators reflects effects of cropping period and farming system on extra- and intraguild prey. Ecol Appl 27, 1167-1177.

Roubinet, E., Jonsson, T., Malsher, G., Staudacher, K., Traugott, M., Ekbom, B., Jonsson, M., 2018. High redundancy as well as complementary prey choice characterize generalist predator food webs in agroecosystems. Scientific reports 8, 1-10.

Rusch, A., Chaplin-Kramer, R., Gardiner, M.M., Hawro, V., Holland, J., Landis, D., Thies, C., Tscharntke, T., Weisser, W.W., Winqvist, C., 2016. Agricultural landscape simplification reduces natural pest control: A quantitative synthesis. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment 221, 198-204.

Schmitz, O.J., 2008. Effects of predator hunting mode on grassland ecosystem function. Science 319, 952-954.

Settle, W.H., Ariawan, H., Astuti, E.T., Cahyana, W., Hakim, A.L., Hindayana, D., Lestari, A.S., 1996. Managing tropical rice pests through conservation of generalist natural enemies and alternative prey. Ecology 77, 1975-1988.

Stiling, P., Cornelissen, T., 2005. What makes a successful biocontrol agent? A meta-analysis of biological control agent performance. Biological control 34, 236-246.

Stock, B.C., Semmens, B.X., 2016. Unifying error structures in commonly used biotracer mixing models. Ecology 97, 2562-2569.

Straub, C.S., Finke, D.L., Snyder, W.E., 2008. Are the conservation of natural enemy biodiversity and biological control compatible goals? Biological control 45, 225-237.

Sun, J.-T., Wang, M.-M., Zhang, Y.-K., Chapuis, M.-P., Jiang, X.-Y., Hu, G., Yang, X.-M., Ge, C., Xue, X.-F., Hong, X.-Y., 2015. Evidence for high dispersal ability and mito-nuclear discordance in the small brown planthopper, Laodelphax striatellus. Scientific Reports 5, 1-10.

Symondson, W., Sunderland, K., Greenstone, M., 2002. Can generalist predators be effective biocontrol agents? Annual review of entomology 47, 561-594.

Wise, D.H., Moldenhauer, D.M., Halaj, J., 2006. Using stable isotopes to reveal shifts in prey consumption by generalist predators. Ecological Applications 16, 865-876.

Zeileis, A., Cribari-Neto, F., Gruen, B., Kosmidis, I., Simas, A.B., Rocha, A.V., Zeileis, M.A., 2016. Package ‘betareg’. R package 3, 2.

**Table 1.** Statistical results from GLM beta regression models for examining the effects of abiotic and biotic factors on pest consumption by both predators, spiders, and ladybeetles

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Model | Factor | *d.f.* | *χ*2 | *P* |
| Both predators | Year | 2 | 2.02 | 0.36 |
|  | Farm type | 1 | 20.18 | < 0.001 |
|  | Crop stage | 2 | 225.48 | < 0.001 |
|  | Percent forest cover | 1 | 0.61 | 0.43 |
|  | Relative abundance of rice herbivores | 1 | 0.08 | 0.77 |
| Spiders | Year | 2 | 7.58 | 0.02 |
|  | Farm type | 1 | 11.58 | < 0.001 |
|  | Crop stage | 2 | 95.93 | < 0.001 |
|  | Percent forest cover | 1 | 0.95 | 0.33 |
|  | Relative abundance of rice herbivores | 1 | 0.92 | 0.34 |
| Ladybeetles | Year | 2 | 15.00 | < 0.001 |
|  | Farm type | 1 | 1.35 | 0.25 |
|  | Crop stage | 2 | 90.94 | < 0.001 |
|  | Percent forest cover | 1 | 0.76 | 0.38 |
|  | Relative abundance of rice herbivores | 1 | 1.15 | 0.28 |

**Table 2.** Tukey’s post-hoc tests comparing the proportion of rice herbivores consumed in the diet of predators in organic and conventional rice farms. Different superscript letters indicate significant differences in the means of the posterior medians from the Bayesian stable isotope mixing models (α = 0.05)

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Model | Farm type | Mean (± SE) | Lower 2.5% | Upper 2.5% |
| Both predators | Organic | 0.66a (± 0.02) | 0.62 | 0.69 |
|  | Conventional | 0.74b (± 0.02) | 0.70 | 0.77 |
| Spiders | Organic | 0.64a (± 0.02) | 0.59 | 0.68 |
|  | Conventional | 0.73b (± 0.02) | 0.69 | 0.77 |
| Ladybeetles | Organic | 0.93a (± 0.01) | 0.92 | 0.94 |
|  | Conventional | 0.94a (± 0.01) | 0.93 | 0.95 |

**Table 3.** Tukey’s post-hoc tests comparing the proportion of rice herbivores consumed in the diet of predators at three crop stages (tillering, flowering, and ripening stage). Different superscript letters indicate significant differences in the means of the posterior medians from the Bayesian stable isotope mixing models (α = 0.05)

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Model | Crop stage | Mean (± SE) | Lower 2.5% | Upper 2.5% |
| Both predators | Tillering | 0.30a (± 0.03) | 0.24 | 0.36 |
|  | Flowering | 0.86b (± 0.02) | 0.82 | 0.89 |
|  | Ripening | 0.93c (± 0.01) | 0.91 | 0.96 |
| Spiders | Tillering | 0.34a (± 0.04) | 0.26 | 0.42 |
|  | Flowering | 0.83b (± 0.02) | 0.78 | 0.87 |
|  | Ripening | 0.88b (± 0.02) | 0.83 | 0.93 |
| Ladybeetles | Tillering | 0.91a (± 0.01) | 0.89 | 0.92 |
|  | Flowering | 0.92a (± 0.01) | 0.90 | 0.94 |
|  | Ripening | 0.98b (± 0.00) | 0.97 | 0.98 |

**Figures (color should be used for Figure 1, 2, and 3)**

**Figure 1.** The proportions (mean ± SE) of prey sources (rice herbivores, tourist herbivores, and detritivores) consumed in the diet of (a) both predators, (b) spiders, and (c) ladybeetles in organic and conventional rice farms over crop stages. The proportions were computed from the Bayesian posterior medians of diet estiamtes in replicate farms over the three study years.

**Figure 2.** The proportion of rice herbivores consumed in the diet of (a) both predators, (b) spiders, and (c) ladybeetles in organic and conventional rice farms over crop stages in the three study years. The proportions were computed from the Bayesian posterior medianss of diet estiamtes in replicate farms.

**Figure 3.** The relative abundances of prey sources in organic and conventional rice farms over crop stages in the three study years. The relative abundances were determined from the sweep-net samples pooled across replicate farms.

**Figure 1.**

C:\Users\genchanghsu\Desktop\2021_Consistent_Pest_Consumption_by_Generalist_Predators_in_Rice_Farms\Output\Figures\Diet_proportion.tiffDiet_proportion

**Figure 2.**

C:\Users\genchanghsu\Desktop\2021_Consistent_Pest_Consumption_by_Generalist_Predators_in_Rice_Farms\Output\Figures\Rice_herb_consumption.tiffRice_herb_consumption

**Figure 3.**

C:\Users\genchanghsu\Desktop\2021_Consistent_Pest_Consumption_by_Generalist_Predators_in_Rice_Farms\Output\Figures\Rel_abd.tiffRel_abd